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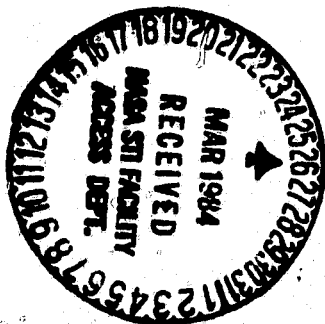
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CENTRIFUGE IMPACT CRATERING EXPERIMENT V:

NASW-3291



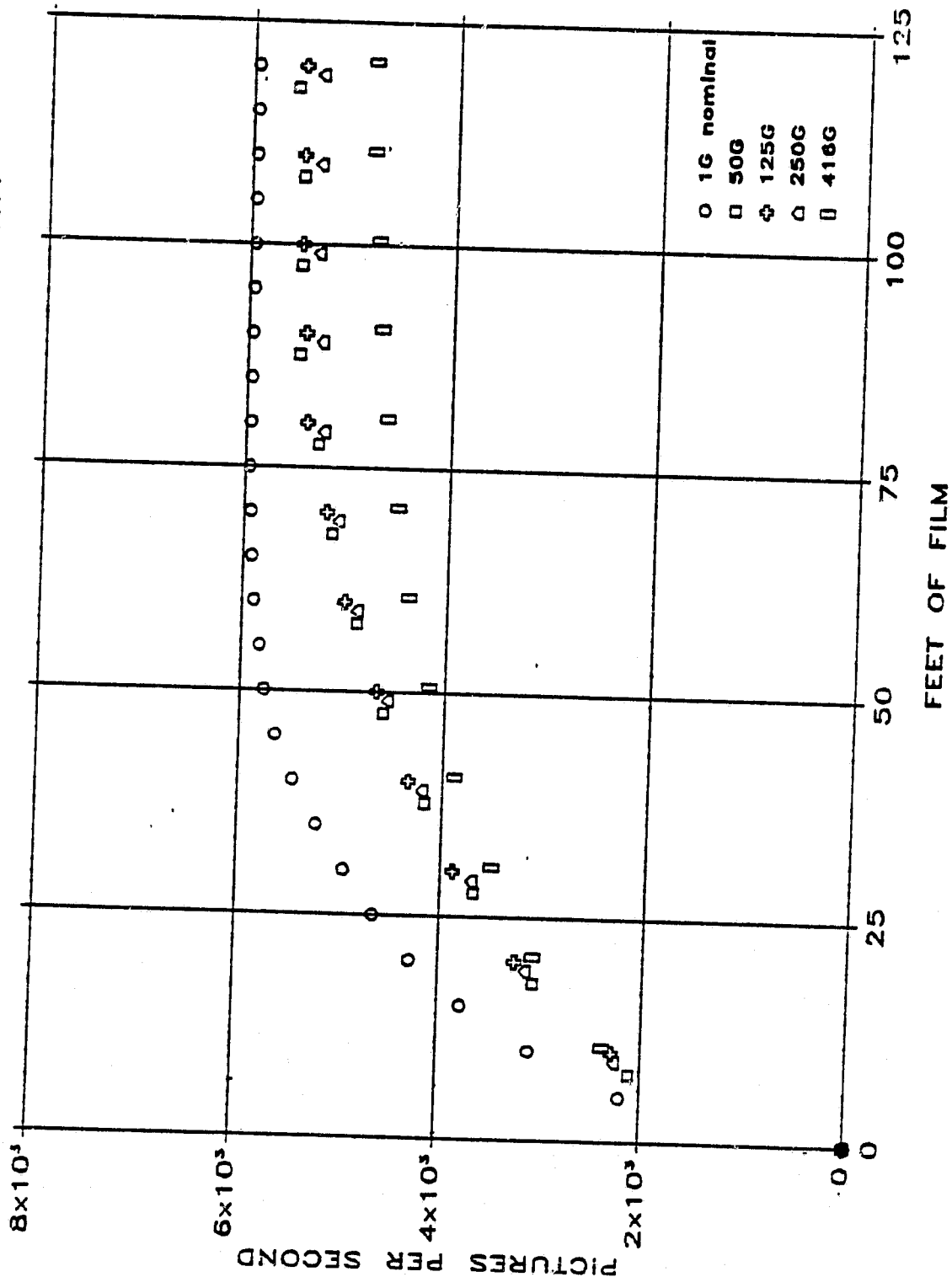
This work is sponsored by:

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Office of Space Science
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FASTAX II CAMERA FRAMING RATES VS GRAVITY



TRANSIENT CRATER MOTIONS: SATURATED SAND CENTRIFUGE EXPERIMENTS

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The kinematics of crater formation are being investigated using a quarter-space test bed on a centrifuge. This technique (1) allows high-speed movie coverage of target deformations as seen in cross section through a 2-inch Plexiglas window along a diametrical symmetry boundary. The data for the eight shots performed to date with the recently installed Fastax II-100 rotating-prism camera are shown in the attached table. Two objectives of these tests were to dynamically record the maximum depth of the transient crater and to record its collapse. Preliminary interpretation of the film records for shot 307-QXE is shown in the attached figure. This shot was conducted in nearly-saturated moderately-dense fine-grained Ottawa "Banding" sand.

For this target material, crater floor uplift ("collapse") occurs on the same time scale as the radial motion of the ejecta plume. Because of the impairment of the optical path due to detonation products plating onto the window, the floor uplifting sequence could not be resolved in some of the intermediate frames of the work print. It appears to be complete by frame 21 and maybe earlier. At this time the ejecta plume is in the vicinity of the final apparent crater radius and the crater profile is in agreement with the final apparent crater measured after the shot with the profilometer. Crater volume displays power-law growth until maximum transient depth occurs (frame 4). More interestingly crater radius shows power-law growth all the way out to final crater radius (frame 21). Both time exponents, interpreted with the assumption of a unique coupling parameter, $6\alpha/(3+\alpha)$ for volume and $2\alpha/(3+\alpha)$ for radius, are in good agreement with a value of the gravity exponent α equal to 0.65. This same value was determined for crater growth in water (2) (3) and may be applicable for all non-porous geological targets.

As an expedient when determining the maximum charge that would not spall or puncture the window, the explosive charges were built up from Dupont Deta-Sheet. This is PETN with approximately 25% inert plastic filler, which is presumed to cause much of the smoke and detonation debris products. Pure PETN is now under consideration for future shots to improve resolution by reduction of smoke and opaque detonation products. However, since the Deta-Sheet detonation products deposit on the window as it is exposed to the transient crater, a permanent record of the envelope of maximum crater depth versus range is formed. Preliminary comparisons of the detonation product profile with the corresponding final apparent crater profile along with viewing the films indicate that there was no significant difference in the transient crater phenomena over a variation of approximately an order of magnitude in sand grain size. This observation needs further examination when the original film records are digitized.

For seven of the eight shots, the water table was nominally at 1.05 cm below the original ground zero. This was to correspond to the approximate scale of the 500-ton PRAIRIE FLAT explosive crater in the field, which was modeled in the tangent-above shot 306-QXE (see ref. 4).

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TRANSIENT CRATER MOTIONS: SATURATED SAND CENTRIFUGE EXPERIMENTS

Schmidt R. M.

QUARTER-SPACE DATA TABLE

| Shot No. | EXPLOSIVE | | | | MATERIAL | | CRATER | | | | π -GROUPS | | | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-----------|-------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|----------------------|--------|--------|---------------------|-----------------------|---------|---------|---------|------------|
| | Gravity (G) | Mass (gm) | Q (Cerg/g) | Density (g/cc) | Type | Density (g/cc) | V (cm ³) | r (cm) | h (cm) | h _T (cm) | π_2 | π_v | π_r | π_h | π_{NT} |
| 306-QXE ¹ | 399 | 13.0 | 38.5 ⁴ | 1.48 | WBS ¹ | 2.06 | 232 | 8.64 | 2.08 | - | 2.10x10 ⁻⁵ | 36.8 | 4.67 | 1.13 | - |
| 307-QXE | 400 | 4.45 | 38.5 | 1.48 | WBS | 2.06 | 289 | 8.86 | 2.77 | 4.68 | 1.47x10 ⁻⁵ | 134 | 6.85 | 2.14 | 3.62 |
| 319-QXE ¹ | 403 | 5.49 | 42.5 ⁵ | 1.45 | WBS | 2.06 | 232 | 7.45 | 2.95 | - | 1.45x10 ⁻⁵ | 87.1 | 5.37 | 2.13 | - |
| 324-QXE | 398 | 4.23 | 42.5 | 1.45 | WBS | 2.06 | 202 | 7.21 | 2.60 | - | 1.31x10 ⁻⁵ | 98.4 | 5.67 | 2.05 | - |
| 326-QXE | 398 | 4.14 | 42.5 | 1.45 | WBS | 2.06 | 212 | 7.75 | 2.40 | - | 1.30x10 ⁻⁵ | 105 | 6.14 | 1.90 | - |
| 328-QXE | 401 | 4.25 | 42.5 | 1.45 | WFS ² | 2.11 | 193 | 7.41 | 2.17 | 3.64 | 1.32x10 ⁻⁵ | 95.8 | 5.87 | 1.72 | 2.88 |
| 329-QXE | 100 | 4.14 | 42.5 | 1.45 | WBS | 2.06 | 392 | 9.76 | 3.25 | 6.55 | 3.27x10 ⁻⁶ | 195 | 7.73 | 2.58 | 5.19 |
| 330-QXE | 100 | 4.19 | 42.5 | 1.45 | WFF ³ | 1.97 | 320 | 8.04 | 3.49 | 5.90 | 3.29x10 ⁻⁶ | 150 | 6.25 | 2.71 | 4.59 |

* Maximum Transient Crater Depth

¹ WBS = Wet Banding Sand (212 μ)

⁴ Green Data-Sheet (Type C)

** Tangent Above - all others Tangent Below

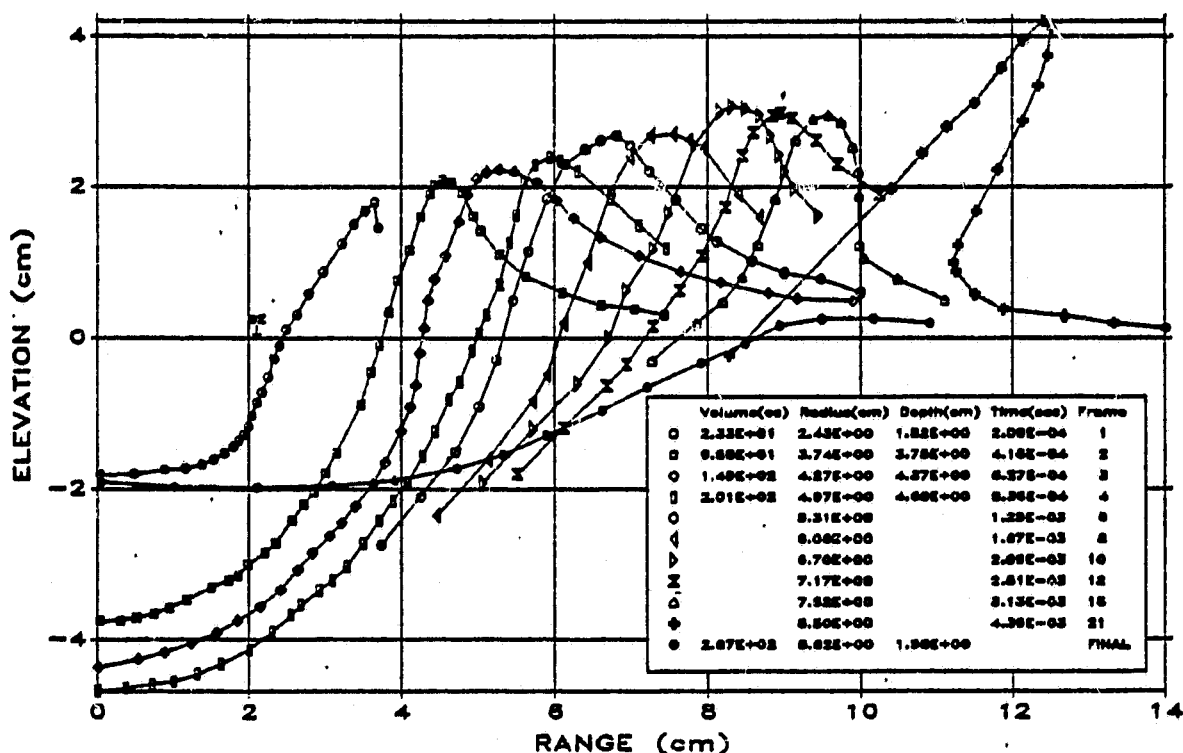
² WFS = Wet Flintshot Sand (800 μ)

⁵ Red Data-Sheet (Type D)

*** Water Table = 0.70cm

³ WFF = Wet F-140 Sand (106 μ)

SHOT 307-QXE TRANSIENT CRATER FORMATION 400G



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Cratering Flow Fields: A General Form and the Z Model

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The nature of material motions is often fundamental in discussions of impact-related processes. An analytic description of cratering flow fields, known as the Z model, was developed by Maxwell and Seifert (1974). Although originally developed for near-surface explosions, it has also been used in calculations of impact ejecta velocities, transient craters and melt generation (e.g., Schultz and Gault, 1979; Croft, 1980; Griève and Cintala, 1981). While it reasonably describes the flow field in some cases (e.g. Orphal *et al.*, 1977), in others it does not. A more general expression for flow velocity is developed here which, in certain instances, reduces to a Z model.

Z Model

The Z model was based on a series of numerical simulations of cratering events. Briefly, the radial velocity of material behind the outgoing shock wave was observed to vary as a power of the radial position r . Discussions of the Z model often include a time dependent term so that

$$\dot{r} = A(t) r^{-Z} \quad (1)$$

where $A(t)$ describes the time dependence of the flow. After the passage of the shock, the material density was found to be nearly constant. The observed incompressibility can be used with eq (1) to determine the tangential velocity component (e.g. Maxwell, 1977):

$$r\dot{\theta} = \dot{r} (Z-2) \sin(\theta) / \{1 + \cos(\theta)\} \quad (2)$$

where θ is the angle measured from the downward axis ($\theta=0$ vertically down and $\theta=\pi/2$ along the target surface). Note that material flows upward toward the surface when $Z>2$ ($\theta>0$) and downward away from the surface when $Z<2$ ($\theta<0$). Radial flow occurs when $Z=2$.

Once $A(t)$ is specified, eqs (1) and (2) determine, among other things, the temporal growth of the crater (Maxwell, 1977). A case often adopted in the literature is that of steady flow, where A is independent of time. In this case, the radius, $R_c(t)$ of the expanding crater is

$$R_c(t) \propto t^{1/(Z+1)} \quad (3)$$

Measurements of crater growth in a variety of materials show that, indeed, crater radius grows as a power of time (e.g. Schmidt, 1983, 1984; Holsapple, 1984). However, for some materials, steady flow cannot hold. For example impacts and explosions in water and wet sand targets (Schmidt, 1984) imply R_c grows as $t^{0.36}$, corresponding to $Z=1.8$. But, as noted above, the flow field is rotational away from the surface for $Z<2$. Consequently, a steady flow Z model cannot apply to these cases.

Austin *et al.* (1980) have compared numerical simulations of impact in plasticine clay to predictions based on the Z model. They found it necessary to modify the basic form of the Z model. The flow center had to be located beneath the surface and both A and Z increased with time. In particular, Z was somewhat less than 2 early on and steadily increased to values between 3 and 4, depending on θ . Austin *et al.* concluded that the Z model "should only be applied with caution to impact cratering". A more general description of cratering flow fields is considered next.

Implications of a Coupling Parameter

The cratering process can be conceptually divided into three phases: (1) an early-time phase, where the impactor energy and momentum are coupled into the target; (2) an intermediate phase where coupling has taken place but the effects of gravity and target strength are small; (3) a late-time phase where gravity and strength begin to slow the crater growth. Searches have been made for a measure of "late stage equivalence" whereby a single measure of the early-time coupling phase could be used to predict the intermediate and late-stage behavior. Holsapple (1981, 1984) has generalized and quantified this idea by introducing a "coupling parameter" which, subsequent to the early-time phase, conveys all information about the impactor. This concept has been used to construct scaling laws for crater ejecta (Housen *et al.*, 1983) and will now be used to investigate the nature of cratering flow fields.

Suppose that, in the intermediate time regime, the radial velocity of material depends on the impactor radius, velocity and density (a , U and δ) and the target density, ρ , in addition to the position coordinates (r, θ) and the time t . The late time regime, where gravity or material strength are important, is not considered here. Using a coupling parameter, the radial velocity can be written as

Cratering Flow Fields, K. Hausen

$$\dot{r} = F(C, \rho, r, \phi; t) \quad (4)$$

where F is an unspecified function and the coupling parameter, C , is a scalar-valued function of a , U and δ . A dimensional analysis of (4) gives

$$\dot{r}/U = (r/a)^{-\beta} \mathcal{F}(\phi, (r/a)^{-\beta-1} Ut/a) \quad (5)$$

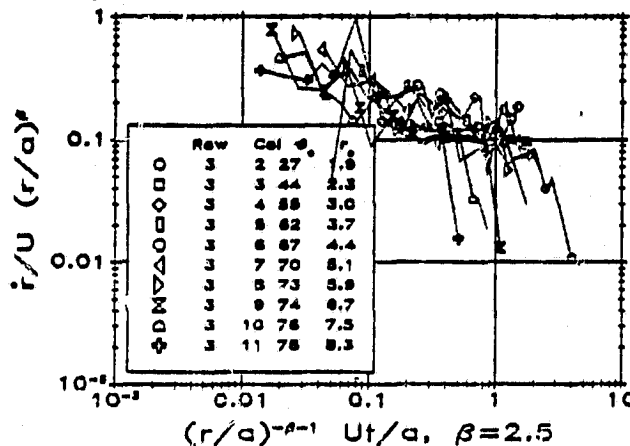
where \mathcal{F} is an unspecified function and, for convenience, the density ratio ρ/δ is assumed constant. The exponent β is related to the dimensions of the coupling parameter and can be predicted from the measured dependence of final crater size on initial conditions. In particular, β should be about 2.5 for porous targets (e.g. dry sand) and 1.8 for nonporous targets (e.g. water, saturated sand, metals).

In general, the time dependent Z model as given in eq (1) is not consistent with a coupling parameter because eq (1) implies a product of separate functions of r and t whereas eq (5) does not. However, there is a special form of the Z model which is admitted by a coupling parameter: the function $A(t)$ in eq (1) varies as a power of time. Consider the three following cases, listed in order of decreasing generality.

1. If $A(t)$ is assumed to vary as a power of t , say t^γ , then the Z model can be viewed as a "local approximation" to a coupling parameter. That is, for a small interval of time, the function in eq (5) can be approximated locally (in log-log space) by $\mathcal{F} \propto \{(r/a)^{-\beta-1} Ut/a\}^\gamma$, where γ may vary with time. Locally, the exponents are related by $Z = \beta + \gamma(\beta + 1)$. Note, if γ varies with time then so will Z (β is constant for a fixed material).
2. If \mathcal{F} has the special form of a power law, i.e., if γ is independent of time, then eq (5) reduces to a Z model (again, where A is proportional to t^γ).
3. In the special case of steady flow, the Z model corresponds to a coupling parameter with $Z = \beta$.

Case 1 may explain, at least qualitatively, the observations of Austin *et al* (1980) that both A and Z (in eq 1) increased with time. If, for the case studied by Austin *et al*, \mathcal{F} was not a power law and the *local* slope of \mathcal{F} (i.e., γ) started out near zero and increased with time, then Z would start out near 1.8 and would increase with time (note, $\beta \approx 1.8$ is expected for their clay target). A coupling parameter may explain the observations of Austin *et al*. But without specific knowledge of the time dependence observed in their computed flow field it is difficult to perform a rigorous test.

Piekutowski's (1980) measurements of particle velocities for a small-scale explosion in dry sand are shown below in the form consistent with eq (5). While there is some scatter due to measurement error, the data for various "tracer particles" follow a common trend. Hence, a coupling parameter scales these data rather well. Piekutowski's results imply that \mathcal{F} is a decreasing function of time for dry sand, while \mathcal{F} increased with time in the Austin *et al* calculations. This raises the possibility that \mathcal{F} may differ markedly for different materials.



Scaled particle-velocity measurements for dry sand (Piekutowski, 1980).

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ON CRATER DYNAMICS: COMPARISONS OF RESULTS FOR
DIFFERENT TARGET AND IMPACTOR CONDITIONS

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A fundamental question of impact cratering mechanics is how the impactor and target conditions and material properties affect the crater. This question must be answered in order that known results can be extrapolated with confidence to new and different cases.

Recent studies have uncovered a surprising simplicity in a large number of cratering problems. This simplicity is a consequence of a separation of the early from the intermediate and late-time mechanics, with a single scalar-valued "coupling parameter" depending on impactor radius a , velocity U and mass density δ , as $C \propto a U^\mu \delta^\nu$, being the sole measure of the impactor for all of the intermediate to late-time processes. Previous applications to final crater geometry (1,2), to ejecta blankets (3) and to crater formation time (4) have been reported.

Here the entire dynamical history of crater growth is considered. Fig. 1 shows the crater depth d versus time t for a wide variety of experimental and calculated craters in non-porous targets (5-10), as well as new results for impacts into aluminum. The targets include metals, rock, clay and water and the impactors range over a variety of materials with the mass densities from 0.01 to 8 gm/cm³. The impact velocities range from 2.5 to 100 km/sec. The results span many decades in size and time.

Each of these growth curves shows at least some aspects of a generic crater depth versus time curve as sketched in Fig. 2, showing three identifiable regimes. In the very early time, the flow is one-dimensional and there is no dependence on impactor radius. The crater growth proceeds simply as $d = vt$ where v is the initial target particle velocity determined by U and the impedances of the two materials.

As the flow becomes two-dimensional, the impactor radius becomes an important parameter. However, after a very short transition time, the sole remaining measure of the impactor is the value of the coupling parameter C given above. The exponents μ and ν are found to be $\mu = 0.58$ and $\nu = 0.66$ for all of the cases shown, and the crater growth can be shown to be governed by the law $d \propto t^{\mu/(1+\mu)}$.

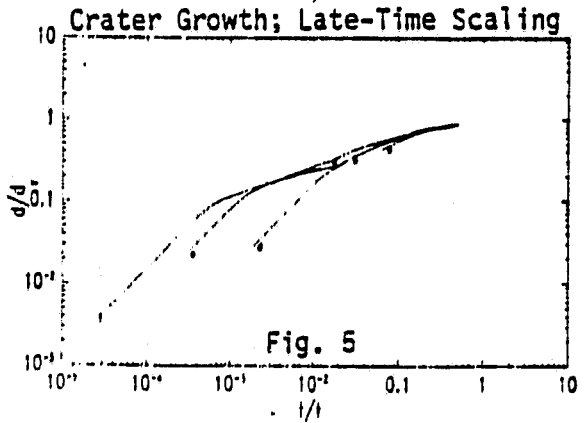
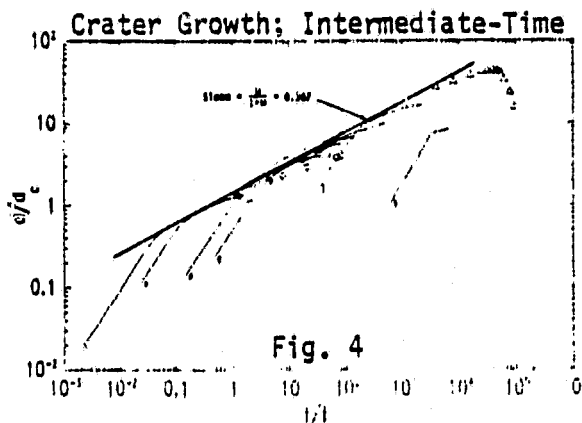
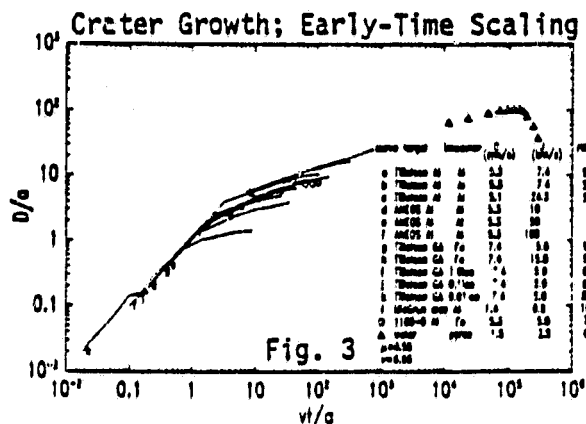
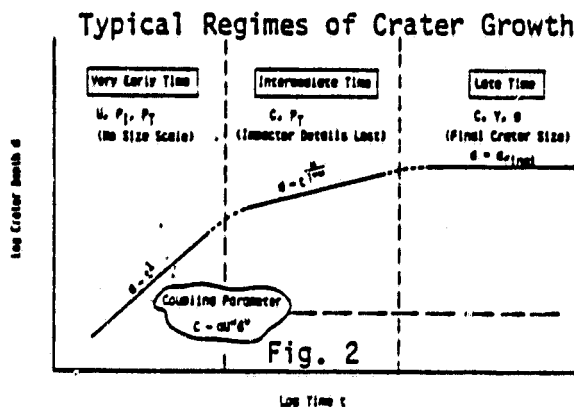
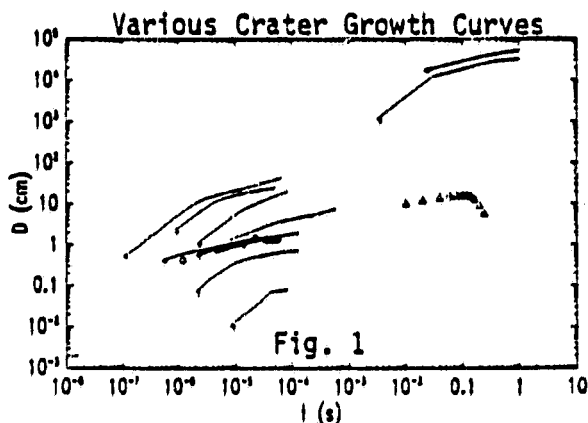
Finally, in the late-stages, the growth is inhibited by either material strength Y (in the case of small craters) or by gravity g (in the case of large craters; $\rho g d \gg Y$) and the scaling of the maximum crater size is governed by the results reported previously.

These results imply that, in each regime, a different scaling exists that should relate all crater histories. Figures 3, 4, and 5 illustrate this fact showing respectively, the early, intermediate and late-time scaling. In each case, the variety of curves do indeed superimpose in the applicable regime.

ON CRATER DYNAMICS K. A. Holsapple

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FEASIBILITY OF DETERMINING IMPACT CONDITIONS FROM TOTAL CRATER MELT

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In the past, authors have used parameters such as kinetic energy or momentum to scale crater volume and total melt volume (sum of that in crater and ejecta) produced by impact. The converse procedure; determining impact characteristics from, for example, the crater volume, will not determine impactor radius, a , and velocity, U , individually, but only as a product of powers of a and U . Recently, Grieve and Cintala (1) proposed to solve crater volume and total melt volume relations simultaneously to determine a and U individually for a terrestrial crater. Their analysis pointed out that published total melt volume scaling relations varied from energy scaling (2) to momentum scaling (3), with no indication of the domain of applicability. The coupling parameter notion, described below, has the potential to unify the melt scaling relations and identify which materials nearly energy scale and which momentum scale.

The author examined the scaling of depth of melted planetary material along the axis of impact and showed (4) that a coupling parameter of the form $C = a U^\mu \delta^\nu$, $\mu = 0.58$, $\nu = 0.66$, which governs crater depth in nonporous materials like rocks and metals, also governs melt depth. The parameter δ is impactor density. This result necessarily follows from the fact that C determines sources which produce equivalent flow fields at intermediate and late times (5).

If the source variables a , U and δ only enter the scaling of melt depth D_m via C , then, $D_m = f(C, \rho, E_m)$, where ρ is the planet density and E_m is the specific energy of the Hugoniot state from which isentropic release ends at the 1 atm point on the liquidus. Dimensional analysis results in $D_m/a \propto (U^2/E_m)^{\mu/2} (\delta/\rho)^\nu$. Figure 1 is a plot of melt depths calculated with hydrocodes (2,6,7). If the above scaling relation holds, then the curve should be horizontal. Figure 1 shows that C does govern the melt depth for $v^2/E_m \geq 8$ (where v is the particle velocity at impact).

A similar analysis was performed for total melt volume (2,6-8) but did not demonstrate the coupling parameter governs melt volume. Figure 2 shows the data are not horizontal, and appear to be closer to energy scaling, $\mu = 0.67$. Perhaps crater and melt volume scale differently, however, this is difficult to understand, because they both stem from the same flow field, which has been shown to scale with $\mu = 0.58$ (9). The different scaling for the melt depth and melt volume is being looked into, and is suspected to result from free-surface effects.

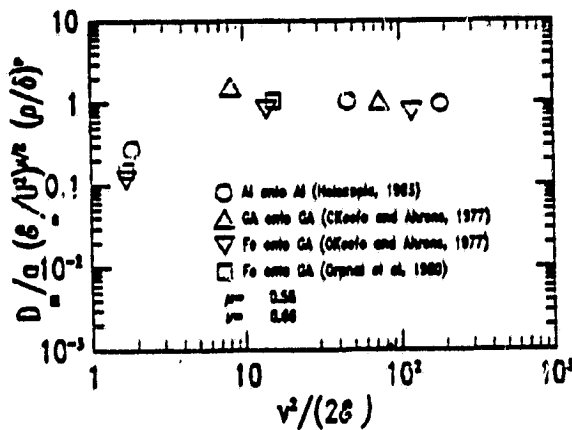
The melt depth and melt volume scaling relations are both significantly different from momentum scaling, $\mu = 0.33$, however. The momentum scaling result (3) for total melt volume was obtained from an analytic model which prohibited ejection of material from the crater. This prevents multiplication of the downwards directed momentum and thus precludes any result other than momentum scaling. Momentum scaling of crater volume has been observed only for porous materials; it is therefore possible that the scaling relation from ref (3) applies to porous materials only.

If the present approach is correct, then it is not possible to distinguish the effects of the impactor radius and its velocity U separately using late time phenomena like total crater melt, crater dimensions or phase transitions in rocks below the crater. Only material from near the impact would retain information about a and U separately. Search for this material is complicated by ejection to great distances. Even if crater melt volume does scale with energy, $\mu = 0.67$ and crater volume with $\mu = 0.58$, the difference is not great enough to allow one to determine a and U separately to any useful accuracy.

FEASIBILITY OF DETERMINING IMPACT CONDITIONS FROM TOTAL CRATER MELT

Michael D. Bjorkman

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Figure 1. Scaled melt depths.

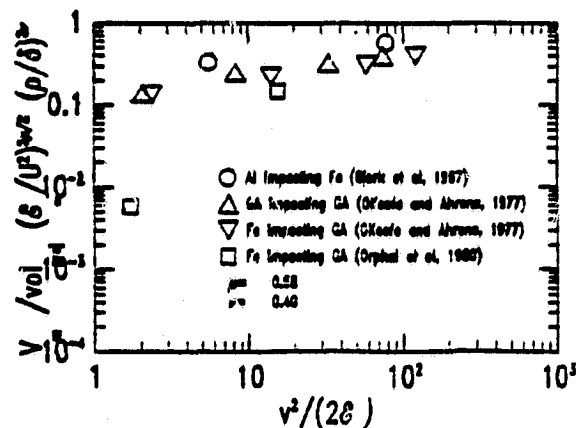


Figure 2. Scaled melt volumes.



CENTRIFUGE QUARTER-SPACE CRATERING RESULTS: A GRAVITY CRITERION FOR KINEMATIC SIMILARITY*

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THE SCALING OF IMPACT CRATER GROWTH*

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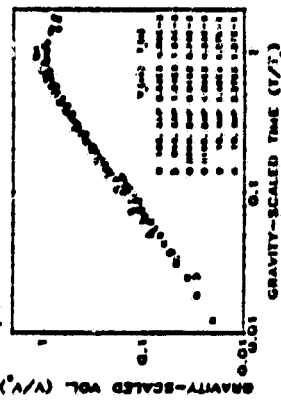
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PAG-12

**Centrifuge Data for Seven Cratering Experiments
A. Factors Controlling for Dimensional Similarity**

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Centrifuge cratering tests in water were performed using a quartz-silica sand bed. Cratering curves were recorded on 16-mm film at a framing rate of 1000/sec. Each shot employed an 8-104 detonating cap placed approximately 1 cm above the water surface. These shots provided crater growth histories for various gravities over the range of 10 to 116G. These histories are shown in the dimensionally similar, when plotted in a non-dimensional form dictated by the assumption of gravity-scaled coupling parameter. Here V_c and V_g are the predicted values of maximum volume and time of formation. They depend only upon the equivalent crater volume on the gravity-scaled axis, V_g . For the equivalent crater, it was assumed to be 0.1, which is the value obtained for projectile impact in water using the data of Gould and Smart (GSA, 271B, 1952). Furthermore, with the same scaling, the impact data can be seen to superimpose with the cratering data.



Centrifuge Quark-space Cratering Results:
A Gravity Criterion for Kinematic Similarity.
(Results for Transient Cavity in Water)

Robert M. Schmidt
Boeing Aerospace Co.
Seattle WA 98124

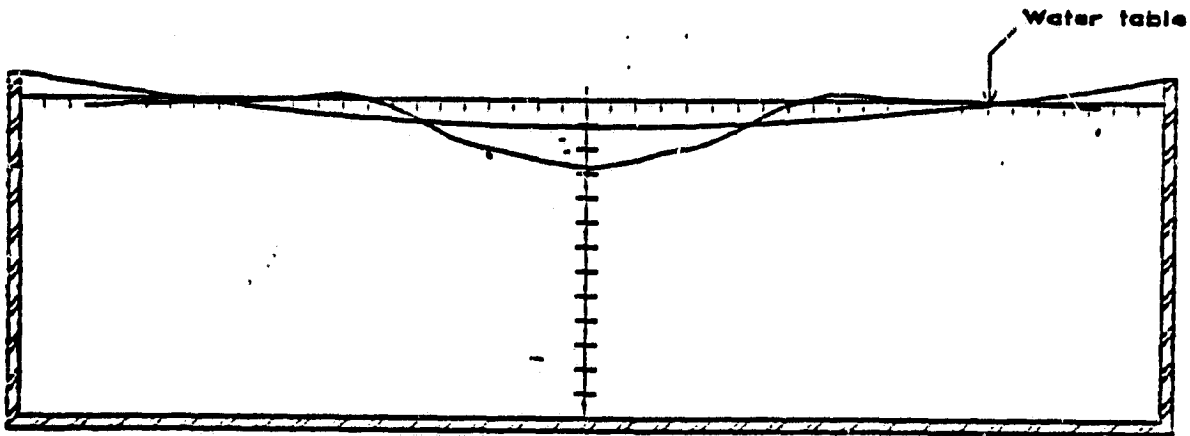
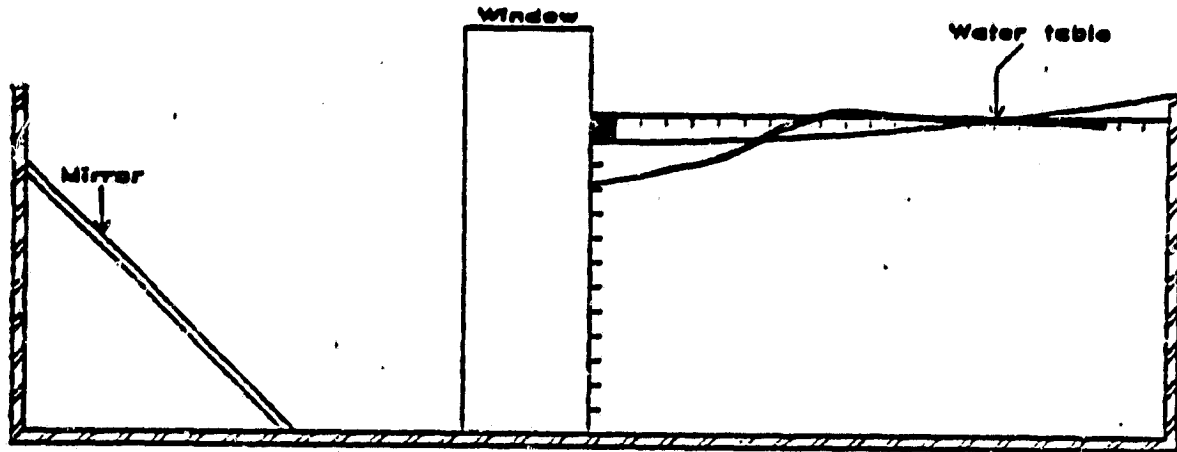
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8 December 1983

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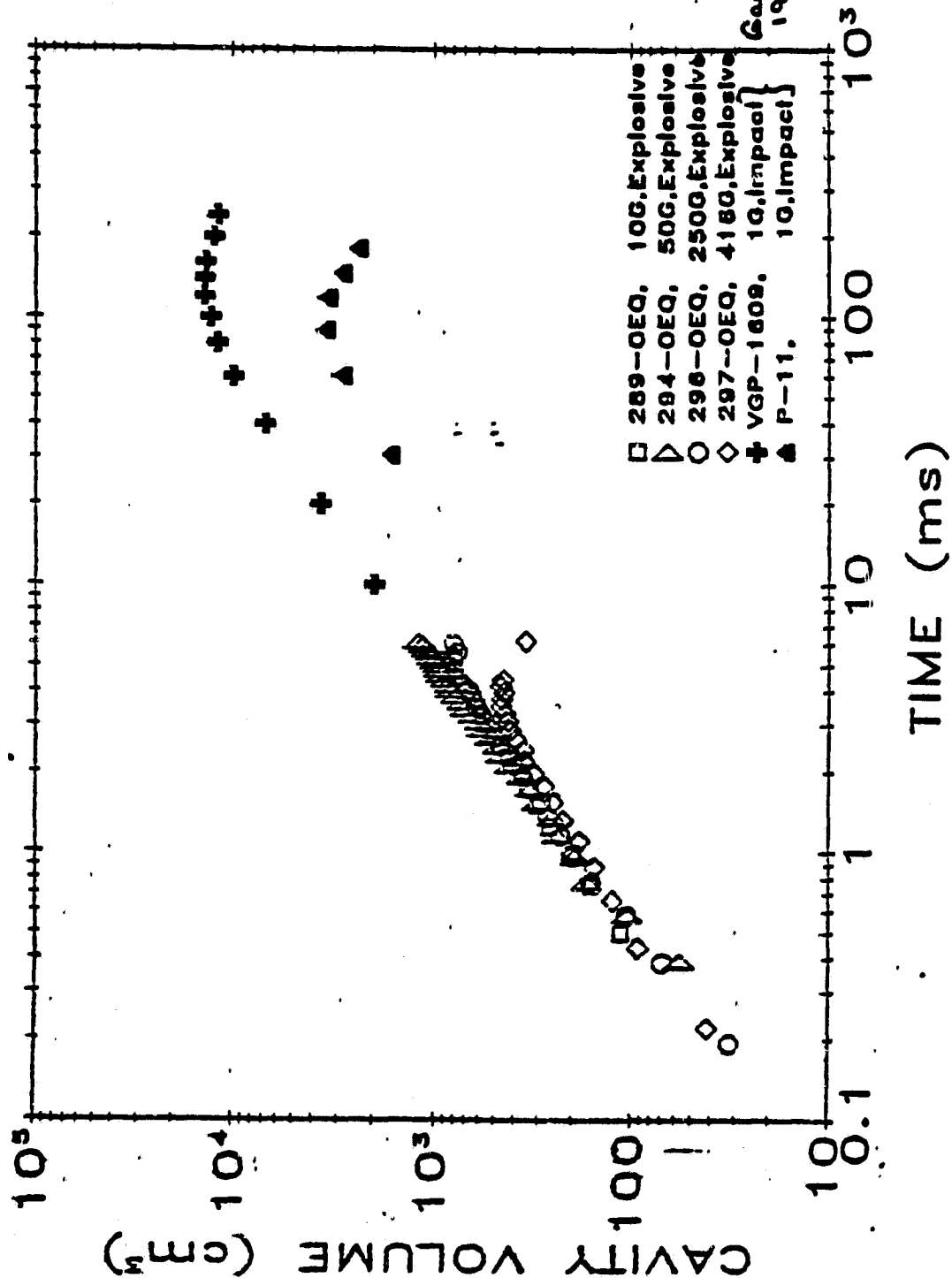
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Centrifuge Quarter-Space Container



2

Lets Look at the raw data for
WATER CAVITY GROWTH VS GRAVITY



3

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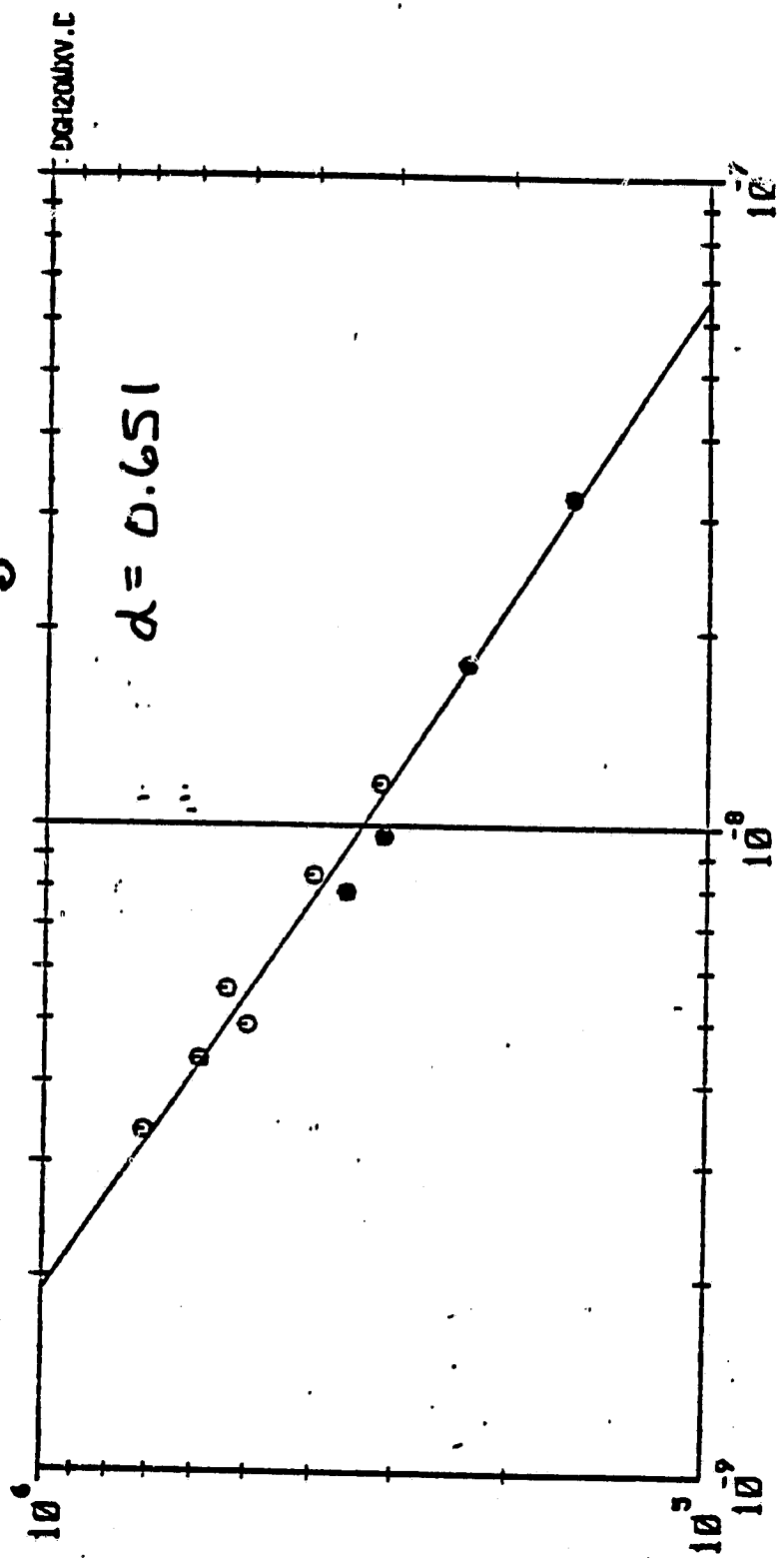
Maximum Crater Volume V_G

| REG | CONST | (C.F.) | $\frac{dV}{dP}$ | SLOPE | (S.D.) | GAULT WATER DATA | RSQUARE | F |
|-----|--------|----------|-----------------|----------|-----------|------------------|---------|---|
| 1 | 2.1008 | (1.851) | - | -0.65096 | (.03308) | .97974 | 7.8379 | |

$$\pi_v = A \pi_2^{-\alpha}$$

$$V_P / 4.19 \alpha^3 \delta = A (3.22 g \alpha / v^2)^{-\alpha}$$

$$V_G = 4.11 (\delta / e) (\alpha v^{\frac{2\alpha}{3-\alpha}})^{3-\alpha} g^{-\alpha}$$



PI2

4

Time of Formation T_G

| REG | CONST (C.F.) | SLOPE (S.D.) | GAULT WATER DATA | F |
|-----|-----------------|------------------|------------------|--------|
| 1 | 1.7981 (1.2938) | -.60264 (.01384) | RSQUARE | 7.9689 |

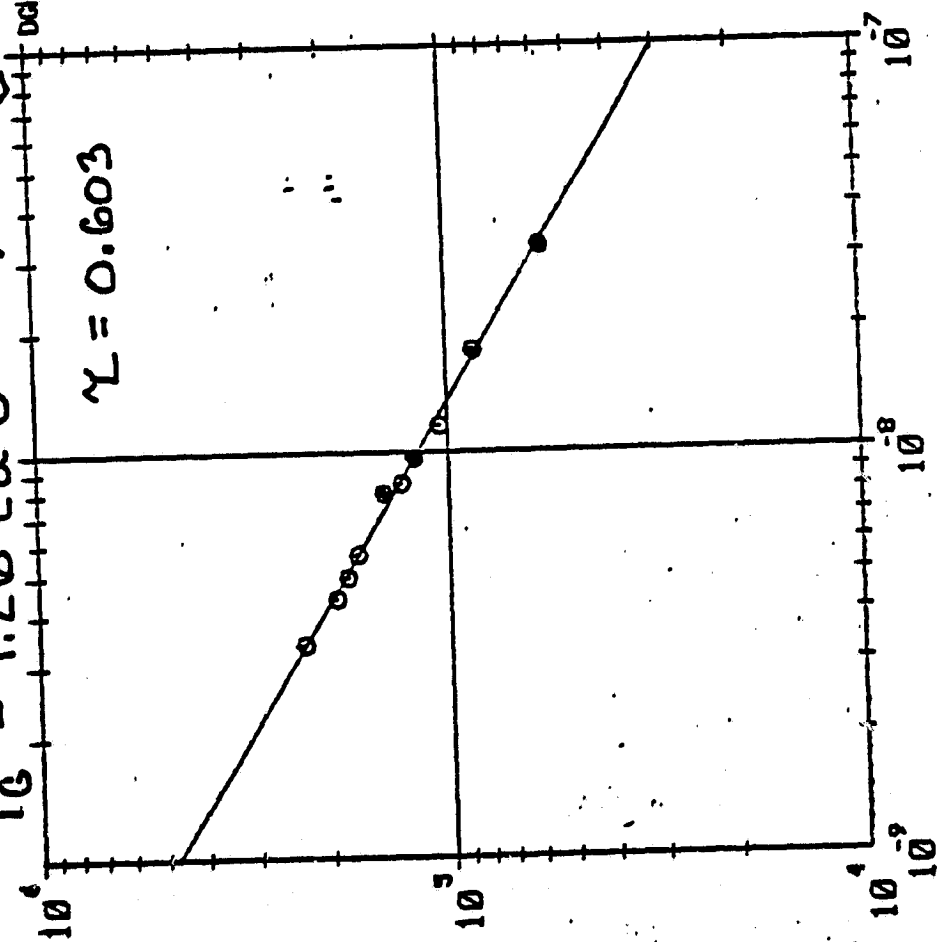
$$\pi r = B \pi z^{-\gamma}$$

$$T_G = 1.26 (a U^{\frac{2\gamma-1}{1-\gamma}})^{1-\gamma} g$$

$$TV/a = \sqrt{2} B (3.229a/U^2)^{-\gamma}$$

DG1201XV.DAT

$\gamma = 0.603$



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PI2

If a unique coupling Parameter determines

(5)

both V_G and T_G

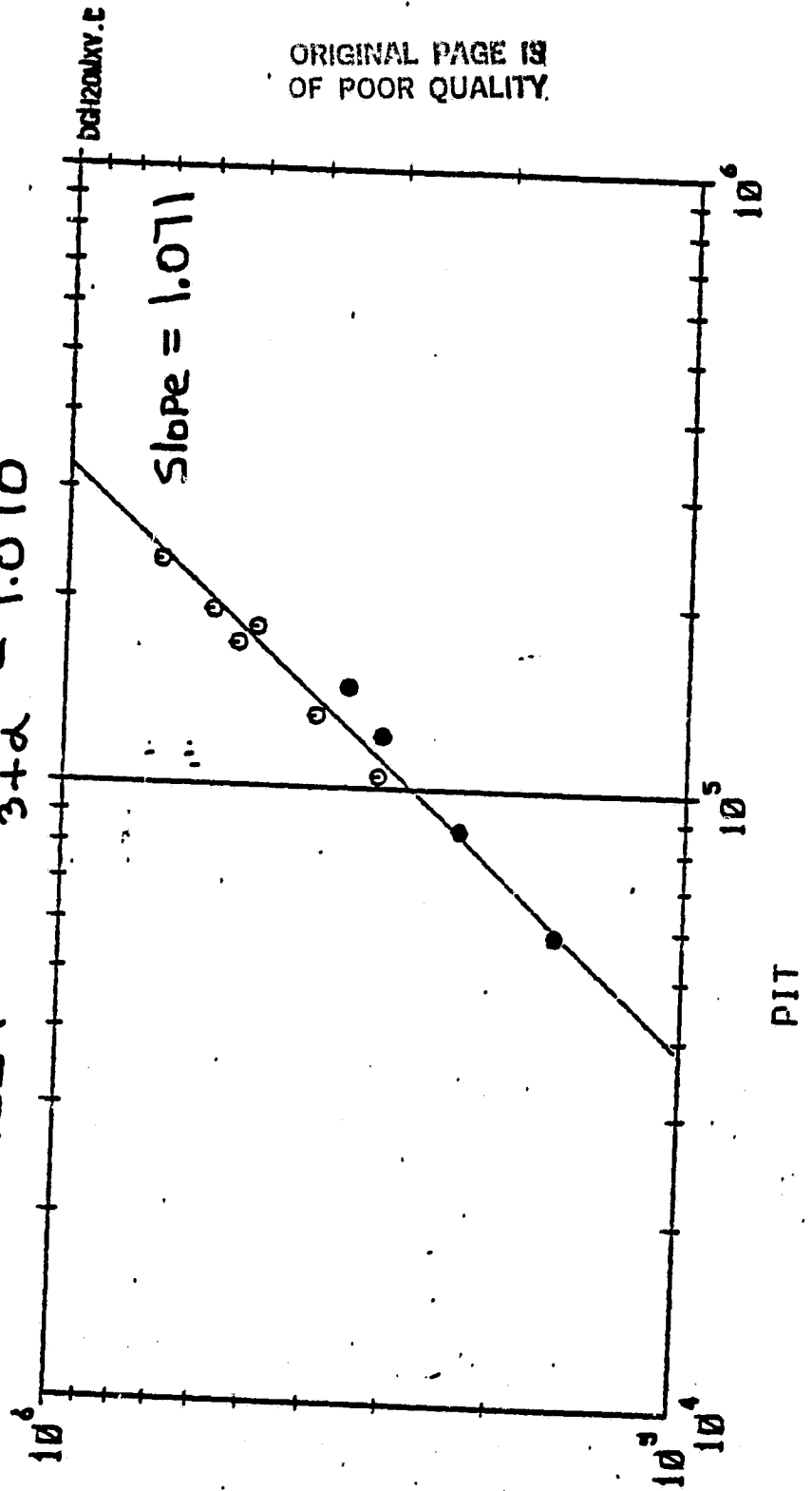
| REG | CONST (C.F.) | SLOPE (S.D.) | GAULT WATER DATA |
|-----|-----------------|----------------|------------------|
| 1 | 1.2431 (2.2744) | 1.071 (.06963) | RSQUARE F |
| | | | .96728 7.7380 |

$$a V^{\frac{2\alpha}{3-\alpha}} = a V^{\frac{2k-1}{1-\alpha}} \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{3+\alpha}{6}$$

$$\pi_v = C \pi_T^{\alpha/2} = C \pi_T^{\frac{6\alpha}{3+\alpha}}$$

$$\alpha = 0.651$$

$$\frac{6\alpha}{3+\alpha} = 1.070$$



Dimensional Analysis

max volume $V_G = f(a, U, \delta, \rho, g)$

coupling Parameter $C = f(a, U, \delta)$

hence $V_G = f(C, \rho, g) \Rightarrow$ Power law

crater growth $V(t) = f(C, \rho, g, t)$

invert $V_G = f(V_G, \rho, g)$

hence $V(t) = f(V_G, \rho, g, t)$ density out

forming π -groups

$$\frac{V(t)}{V_G} = \pi f\left(\frac{t\sqrt{g}}{V_G^{1/6}}\right)$$

Dimensional Analysis (Cont.)

Likewise for Time of Formation

$$T_G = f(a, V, \delta, \rho, g)$$

$$T_G = f(C, \rho, g)$$

Replace C with V_G

$$T_G = f(V_G, \rho, g)$$

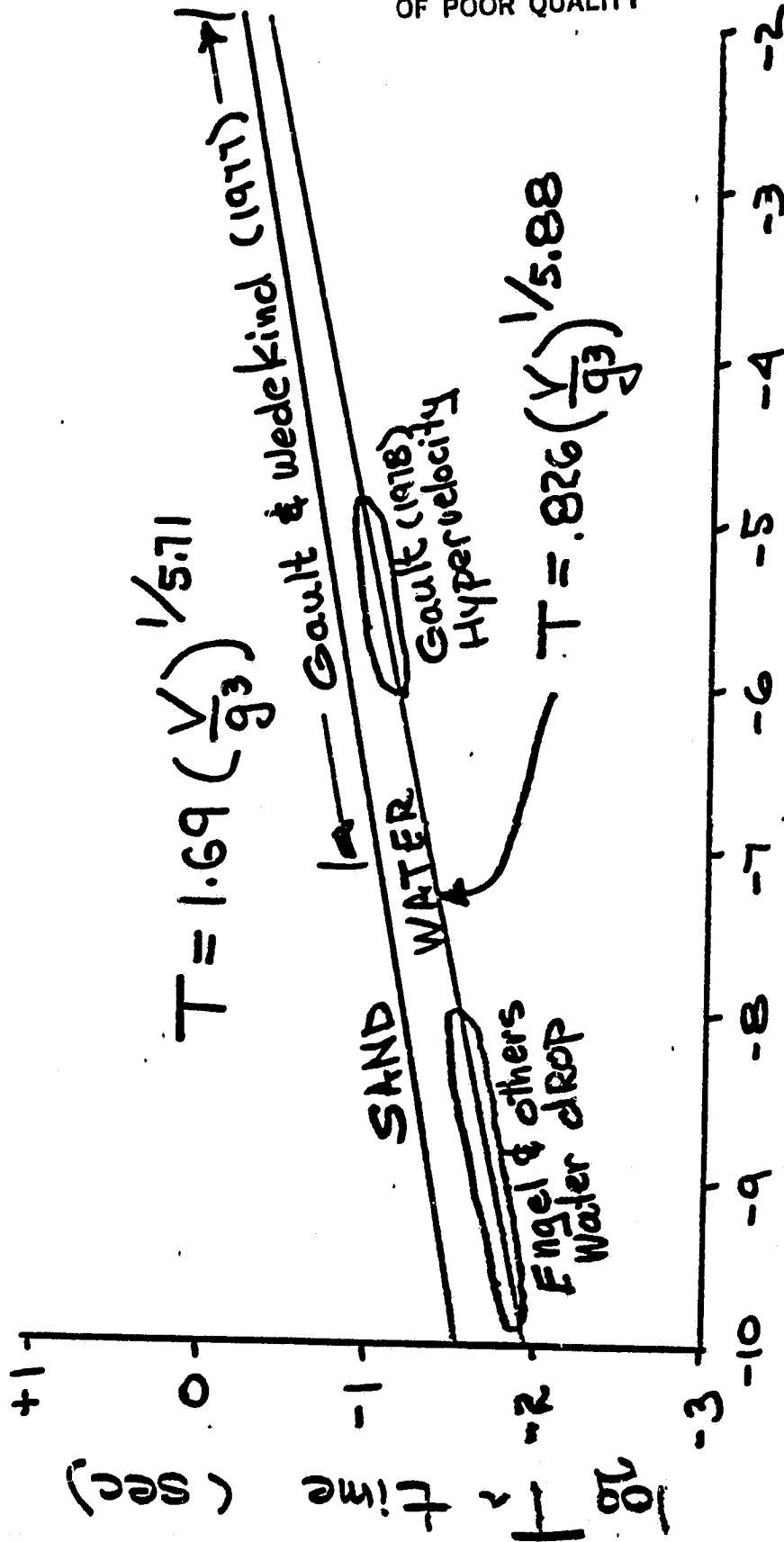
Can write a single π -group

$$\frac{T_G \sqrt{g}}{V_G^{1/6}} = \text{constant}$$

$$T_G \propto \left(\frac{V_G}{g^3} \right)^{1/6}$$

$$T_g \propto \left(\frac{V_g}{g^3}\right)^{1/6}$$

Experimental Data Supports:



$$\log \frac{V}{g^3} \sim \text{Volume} \text{ (sec)}$$

1σ bounds

$1/5.60 - 1/5.81$

$1/5.77 - 1/6.02$

9

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Kinematic Equivalence

now replace $V_G^{1/6}$ with $T_G \sqrt{g}$
to get final result

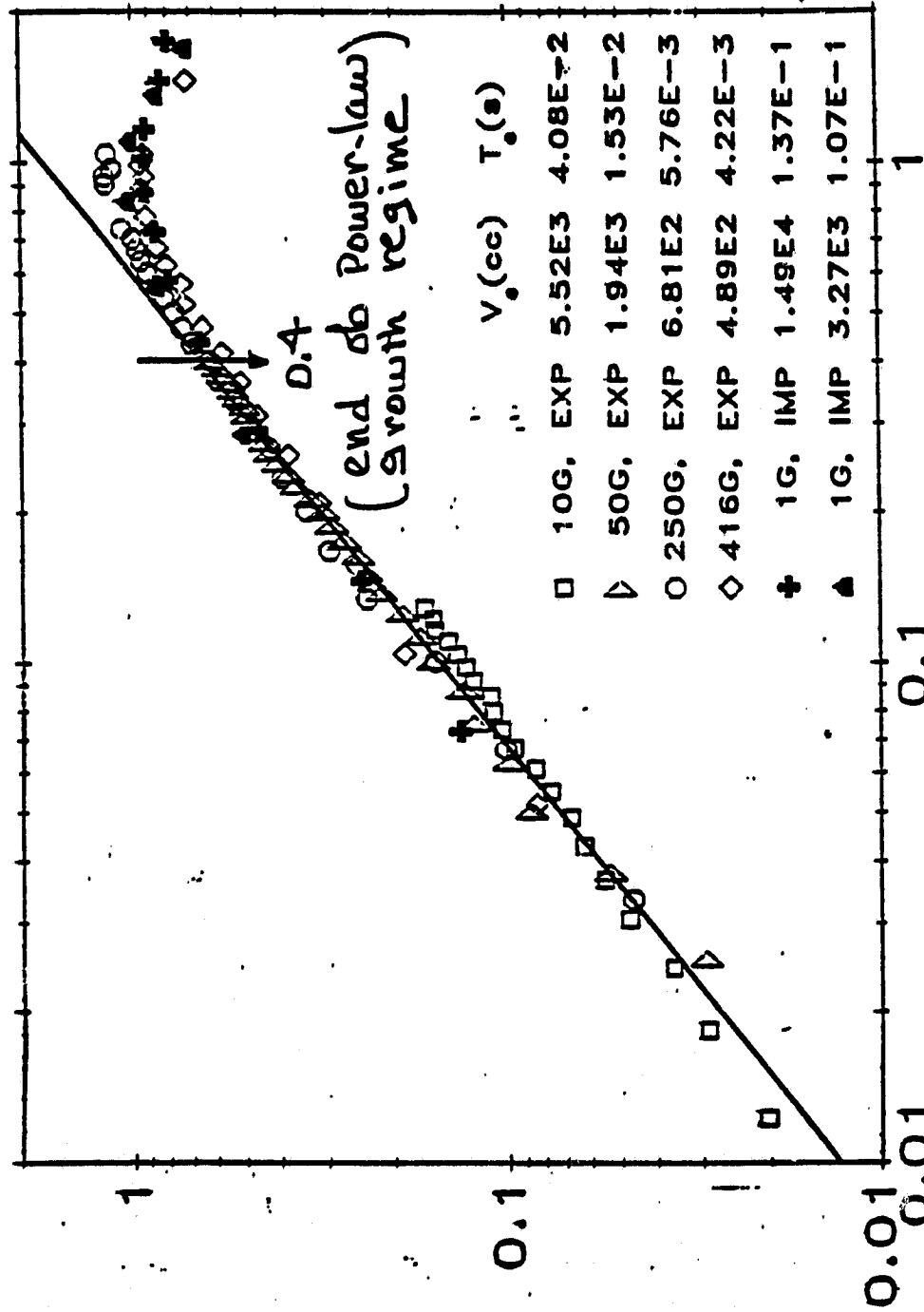
$$\boxed{\frac{V(t)}{V_G} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{t}{T_G} \right)}$$

max volume $V_G = A' (\delta/\epsilon) (aV^{\frac{2\alpha}{3-\alpha}})^{3-\alpha} g^{-\alpha}$

form. time $T_G = B' (aV^{\frac{2\alpha-1}{1-\alpha}})^{1-\alpha} g^{-\alpha}$

GRAVITY-SCALED WATER CAVITY GROWTH

GRAVITY-SCALED VOLUME (V/V_0)



{ Gault &
Sonett (1982)

GRAVITY-SCALED TIME (T/T_0)

(early time)

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(11)

Conclusions for

near-surface explosions and impact into water

- ① Rate of growth is determined by
single global function:

$$V^* = V(T^*)$$

$$V^* = V(t)/V_0 = V(t)/V_{final}$$

$$T^* = t/T_0 = t/T_{final}$$

- ② In principle, any one event can be
used to define V^* .

- ③ All water craters are kinematically
similar.

Water Crater Conclusions (cont.)

(12)

(4) Gravity arrest of crater growth begins at $T^* \approx 0.4$

(5) Prior to that gravity has no influence and growth rate is power-law.

(6) "Very-early time" effects are limited to $T^* = V^* < 0.01$

(7) Next step is to examine other targets, wet and dry soils to look for same features.

IMPACT CRATERING MECHANICS

Understanding and Comparing Problems

I. VARIABLES

ANY Dependent Variable: Volume, Time of Formation, Melt Volume,
Dynamic Growth, etc.

Depends Upon

Impactor Radius, a

Velocity, U

High Pressure properties, $P_I: \delta, K_I, \dots$

Target

High Pressure properties, $P_T: \rho, K_T, \epsilon_m, \dots$

Low Pressure properties, Y, \dots

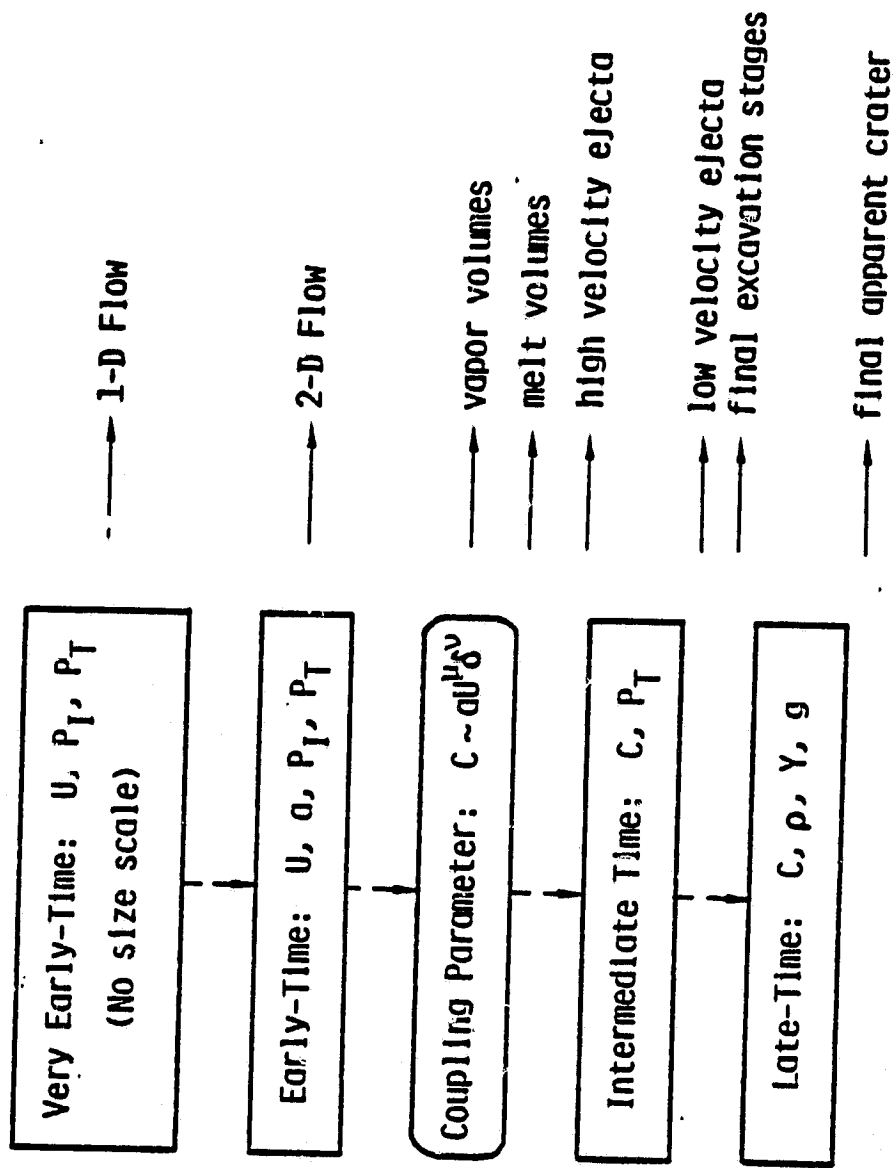
Environment

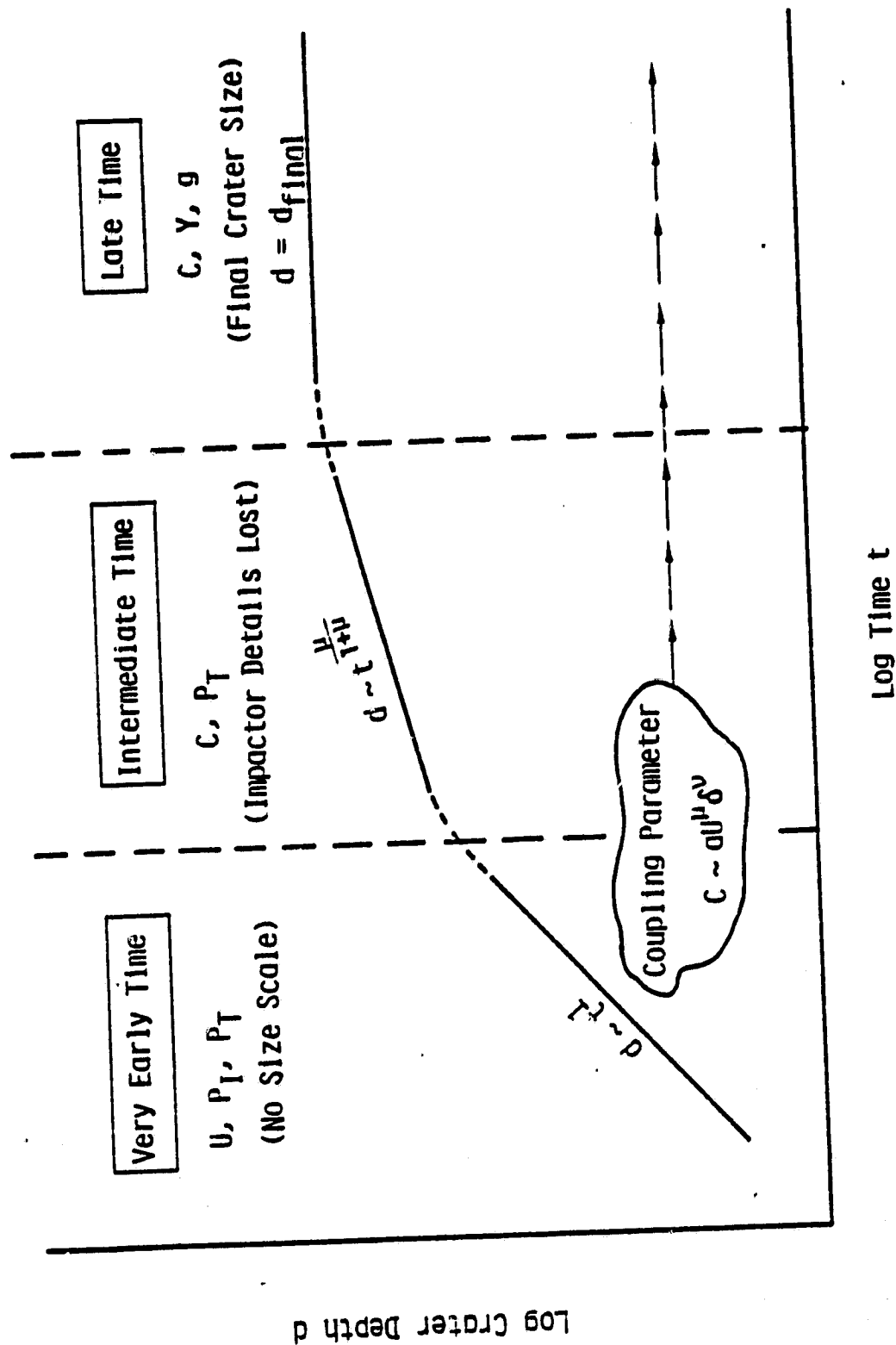
Gravity, g

Atmosphere properties, P_A

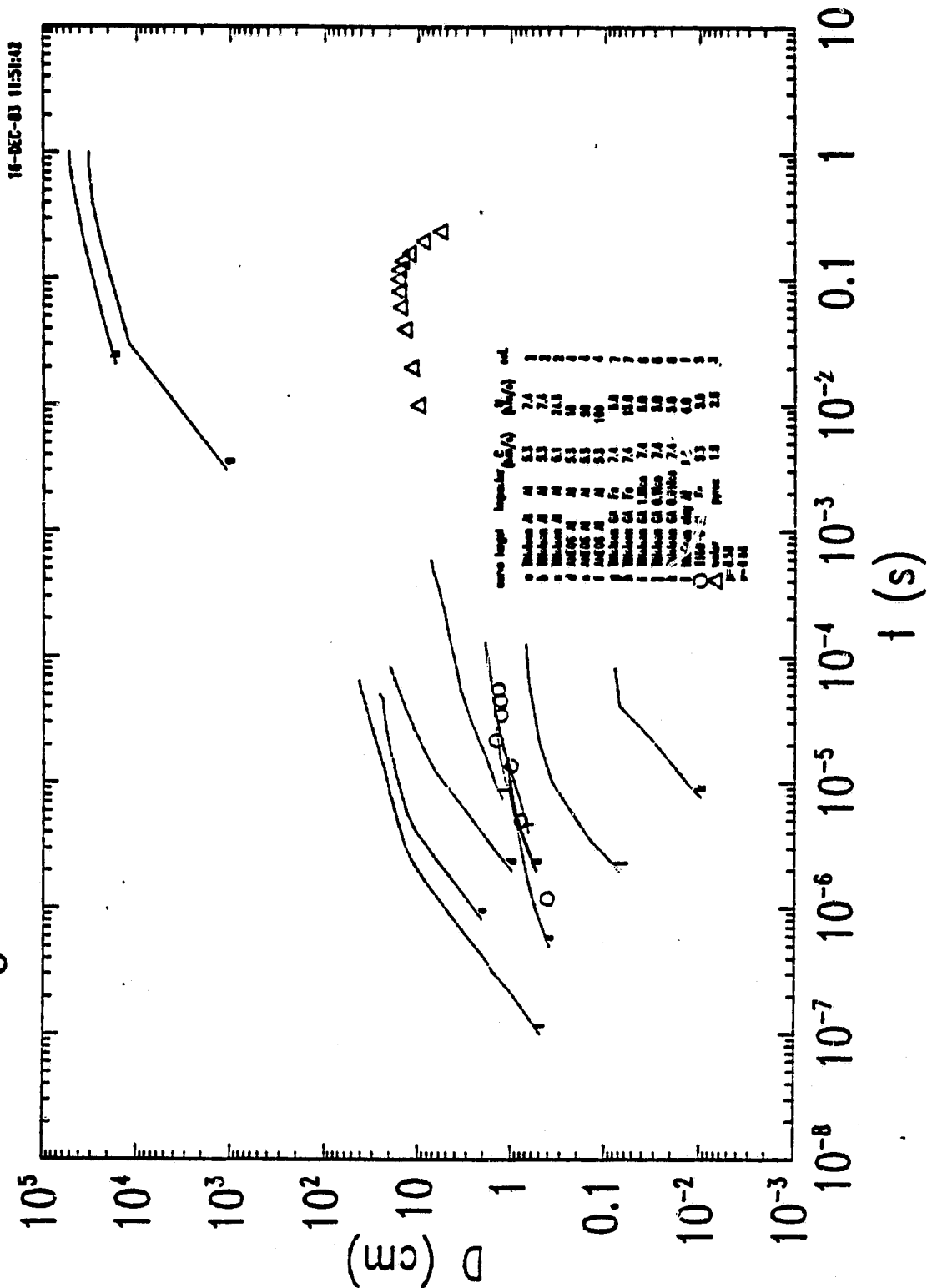
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11. REGIMES OF INFLUENCE (Separation of Variables)



REGIMES OF CRATER GROWTH

crater growth curves: unscaled



III. RESULTS

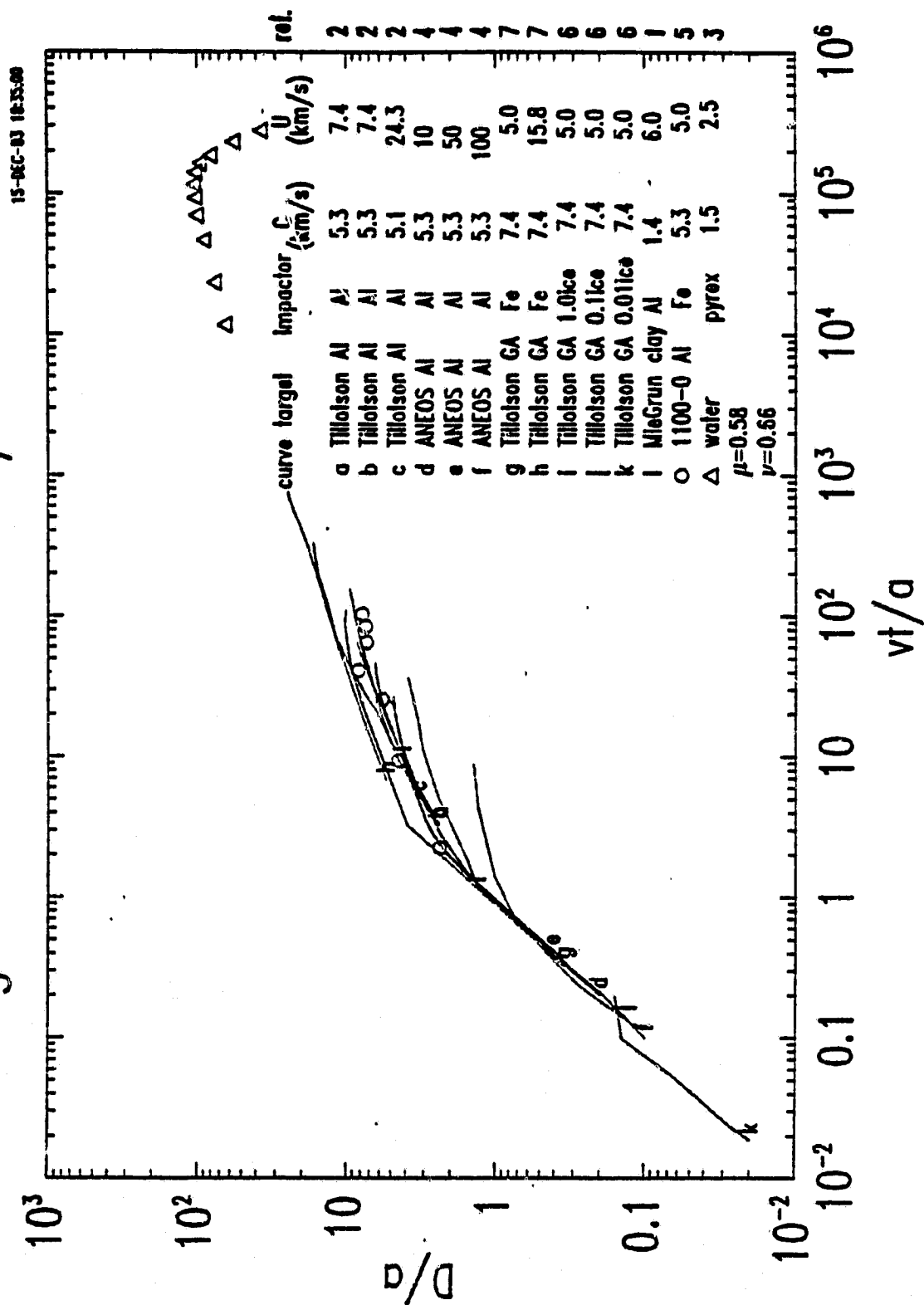
- Early-Time $d = F(t, U, P_I, P_T)$

Initial 1-D particle velocity $v = v(U, P_I, P_T)$

$$\therefore d = F(t, v)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{d \propto vt} \quad \text{all materials}$$

crater growth curves: early time



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III. RESULTS (Continued)

- Intermediate-Time $d = F(t, C, \rho, P_T)$

Try $P_T: \rho, C$.

$$\therefore d = F(t, C, \rho, C)$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dC} = F\left(\frac{t}{t_C}\right)$$

$$d_C = a \left(\frac{U}{C}\right)^{\mu} \left(\frac{\delta}{\rho}\right)^{\nu}$$

$$t_C = \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta}\right) \left(\frac{U}{C}\right)^{1+\mu} \left(\frac{\delta}{\rho}\right)^{\nu}$$

Try $P_T: \rho$

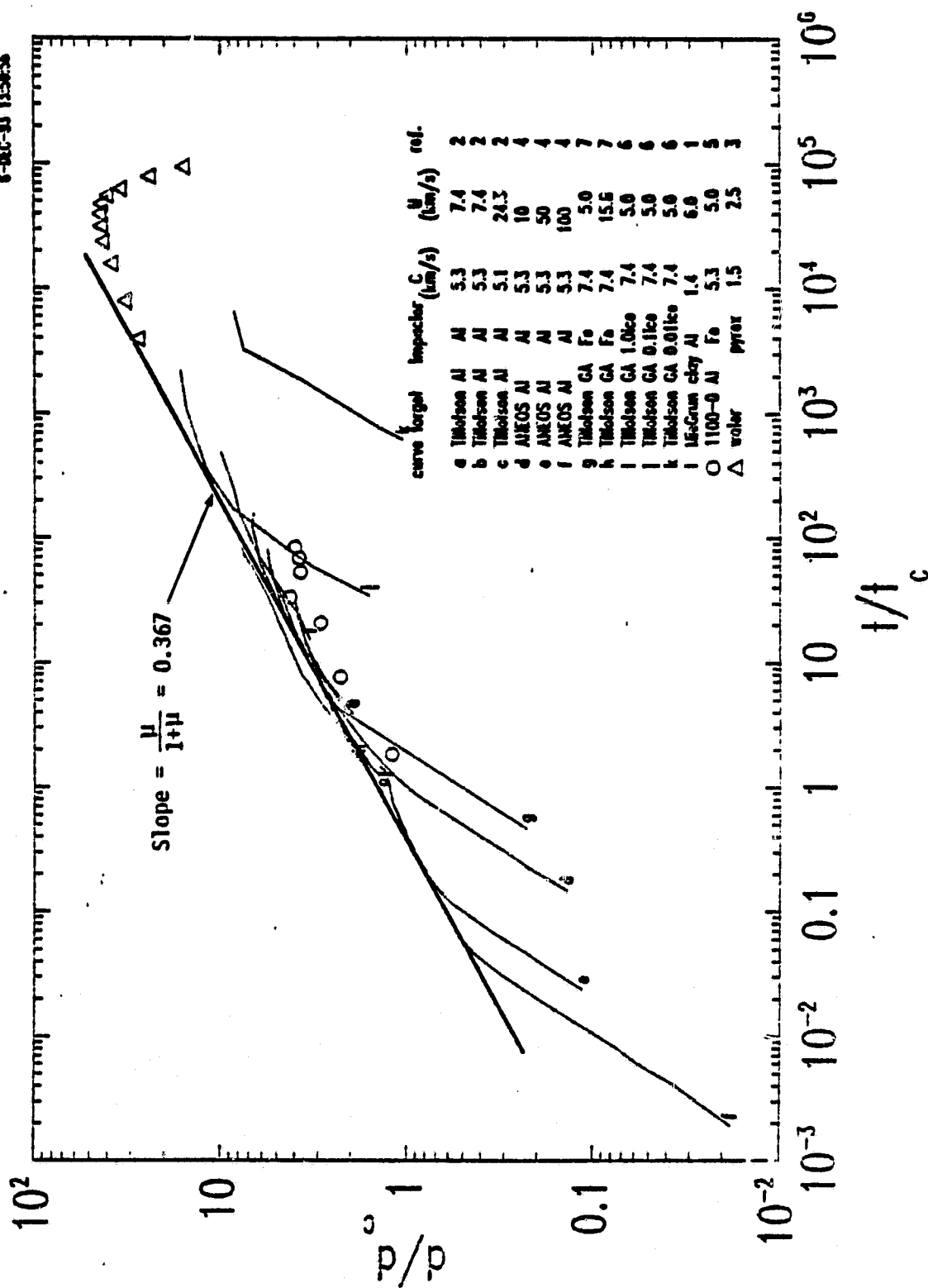
$$\therefore d = F(t, C, \rho)$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dC} \propto \left(\frac{t}{t_C}\right)^{\frac{\mu}{1+\mu}}$$

Power-Law

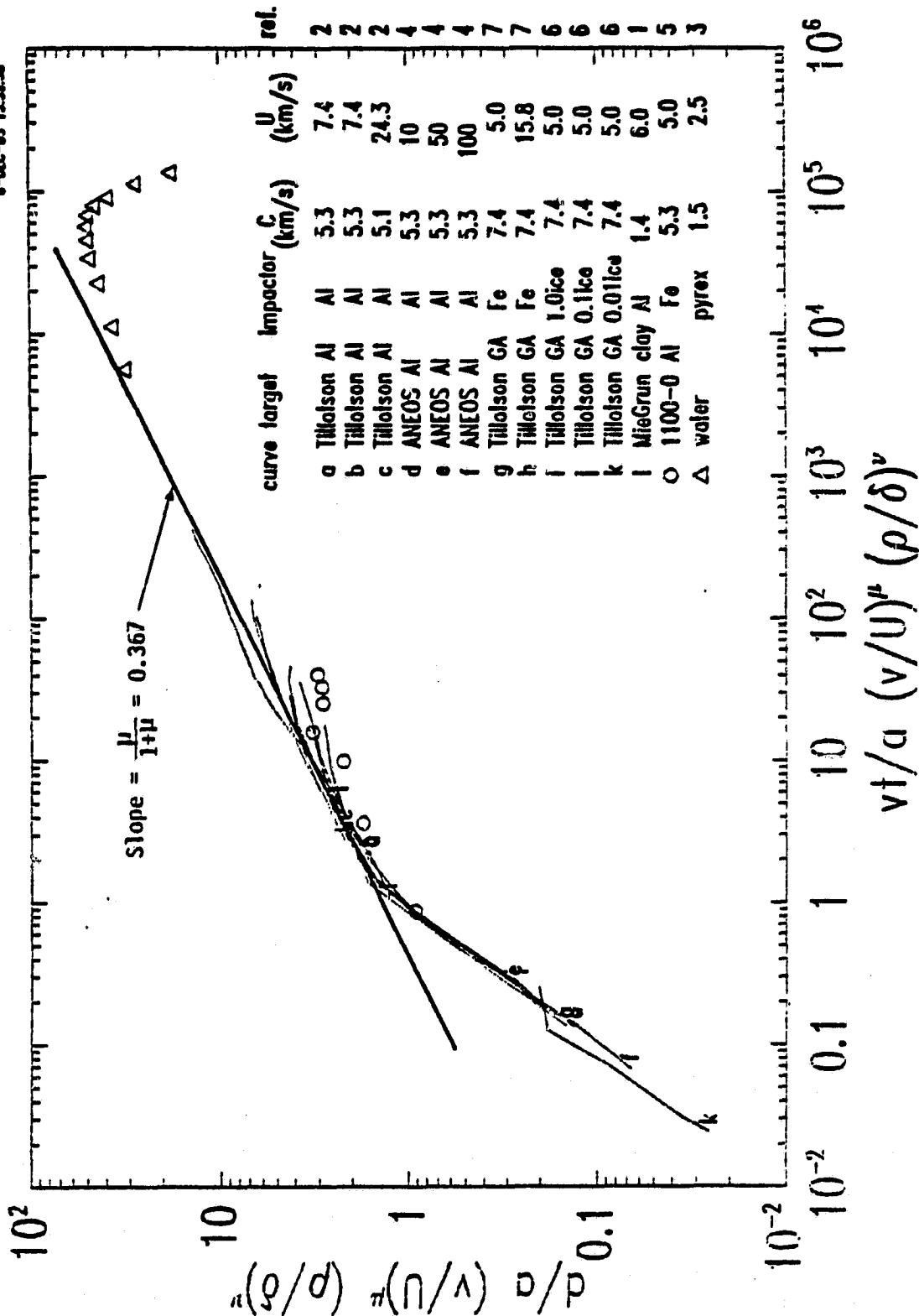
intermediate-time scaling

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crater growth curves: early-time scaling

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III. RESULTS (Continued)

● Late-Time: Final Crater Size

$$d_{final} = F(C, \rho, Y, g)$$

$$t_{final} = F(C, \rho, Y, g)$$

Strength Regime: (g out)

$$d_Y = F(C, \rho, Y) \quad t_Y = F(C, \rho, Y)$$

| |
|---|
| $d_Y \propto a \left(\frac{\rho U^2}{Y} \right)^{\mu/2} \left(\frac{\delta}{\rho} \right)^\nu$ |
| $t_Y \propto \left(\frac{g}{U} \right) \left(\frac{\rho U^2}{Y} \right)^{\frac{\mu+1}{2}} \left(\frac{\delta}{\rho} \right)^\nu$ |

POWER
LAWS

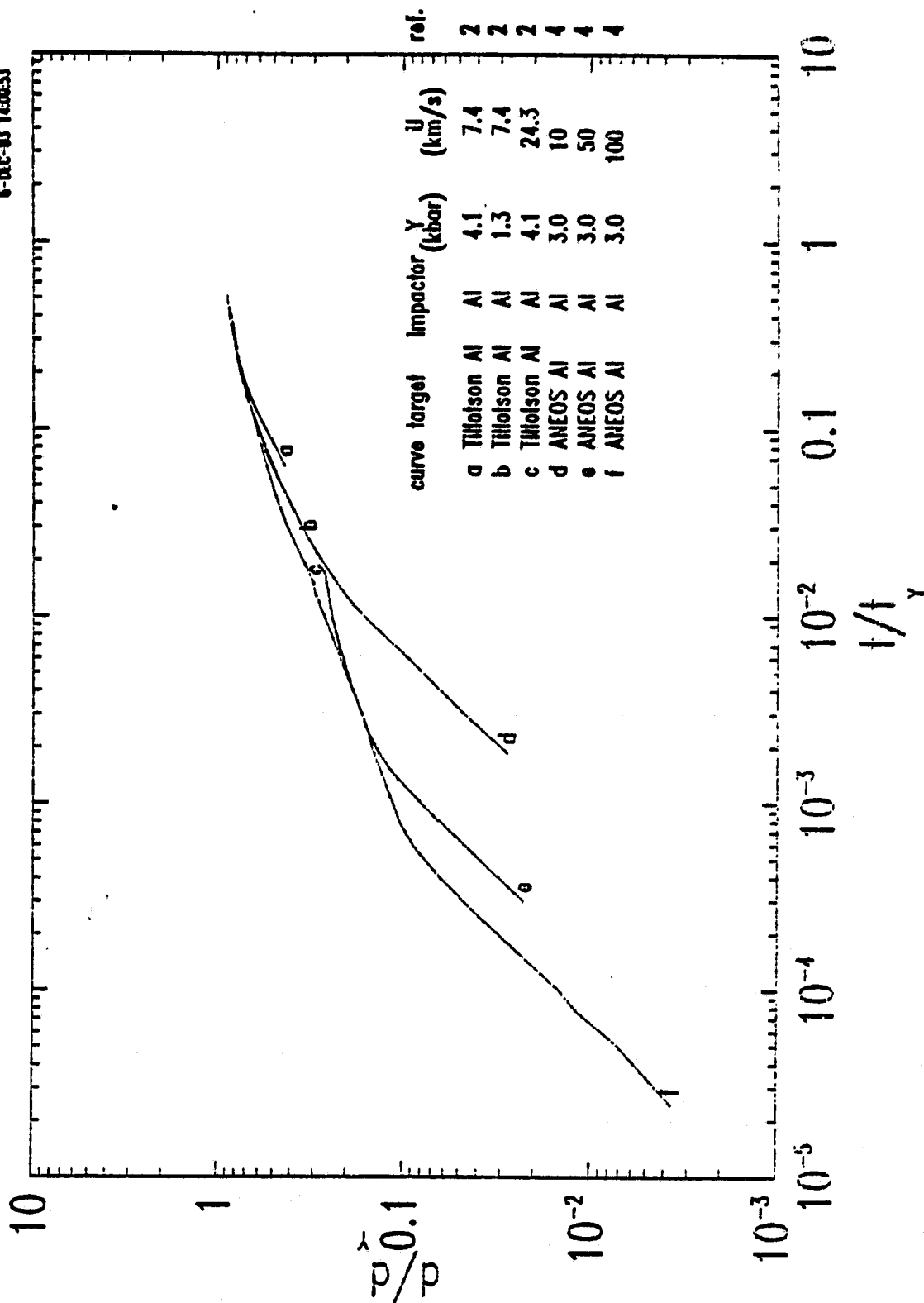
Gravity Regime: (Y out)

| |
|---|
| $d_g \propto a \left(\frac{U^2}{ga} \right)^{\frac{3\mu}{2+\mu}} \left(\frac{\delta}{\rho} \right)^{-}$ |
| $t_g \propto \left(\frac{g}{U} \right) \left(\frac{U^2}{ga} \right)^{\frac{1+\mu}{2+\mu}} \left(\frac{\delta}{\rho} \right)^{-}$ |

Previous $\alpha = \frac{3\mu}{2+\mu}$, $\mu = \frac{2\alpha}{3-\alpha}$

crater growth curves: late-time scaling

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IV. SUMMARY

- There are simple scaling laws that superimpose quite diverse impact problems:
 - Projectiles: Ice, Al, Fe, Pyrex
 - Targets: Al, GA, Clay, Water
 - Velocities: 2.5 to 100 Km/sec
- } All Non-Porous
- A very simple measure $C \sim \alpha U^{\mu} \delta^{\nu}$ of the projectile governs the process after all except very early times.
 - This coupling parameter uniquely determines all intermediate and late-time scaling laws.

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